

1 **Impact of assimilating adaptively thinned AIRS cloud-cleared radiances on**  
2 **the analysis of Polar Lows and Mediterranean Sea Tropical-like Cyclone in a**  
3 **global modeling and data assimilation framework**

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## ABSTRACT

14 Polar Lows, and mesoscale convective cyclones bearing resemblance to Tropical Cyclones but  
15 originating outside of the tropics, are storms that are challenging to represent accurately in global  
16 analyses and models because of their small size, rapid growth at sub-synoptic scales, occurrence in  
17 data poor oceanic regions, and difficulties in objectively validating them in analysis. Building on  
18 previous positive results obtained with respect to the representation of Tropical Cyclones (TCs) in a  
19 global model, a set of observing system experiments (OSEs) performed using the NASA Goddard  
20 Earth Observing System (GEOS, version 5) are investigated, focusing on three case studies – a  
21 polar low in the Sea of Okhotsk, a polar low in the Southern Ocean, and a Mediterranean Sea  
22 tropical-like cyclone that occurred during the boreal fall season of 2014. Experiments assimilating  
23 adaptively thinned cloud-cleared hyperspectral infrared radiances from the Atmospheric InfraRed  
24 Sounder (AIRS) instrument onboard the NASA Aqua satellite, with higher density in the vicinity  
25 of each storm and its pre-cyclogenesis environment, and lower density elsewhere, demonstrate a  
26 positive impact on the analyzed representation of each storm. The adaptive thinning experiments  
27 improve the storm intensity and structure, including vertical alignment, depth, symmetry, strength  
28 and compactness of warm core compared to the reference experiments. The results suggest that jet-  
29 level processes associated with extremely strong horizontal velocity gradients as represented in the  
30 model analysis can be useful to locate dynamically active regions of the extratropical atmosphere  
31 where denser data coverage is likely to improve the analyzed representation of polar lows and other  
32 similar marine mesoscale convective cyclones.

33 *Significance statement.* Extratropical maritime mesoscale convective cyclones are short-lived,  
34 elusive features that are difficult to represent accurately in global analyses. Previous work by this  
35 team demonstrated a positive impact of an adaptive thinning methodology for infrared radiances  
36 applied to the Tropical Cyclone (TC) analysis. The methodology allows a relatively greater volume  
37 of radiance data to be assimilated around TCs within a TC-centered moving domain in a global  
38 model, yielding an improvement in TC structure and intensity forecast. A similar approach is  
39 explored here for two Polar Lows and a Mediterranean Sea Tropical-like Cyclone, wherein infrared  
40 radiances are more densely assimilated in the vicinity of each storm and its pre-cyclogenesis  
41 environment, resulting in a positive impact on the representation of the storm. Strong jet-level  
42 horizontal velocity gradients appear to precede each storm, and could be used to automate the  
43 adaptive thinning strategy in the future.

## 44 **1. Introduction**

### 45 *a. Polar Lows and marine mesoscale tropical-like cyclones*

46 Polar Lows (PLs) are meso- $\alpha$ -scale cyclones that form over high latitude ice-free ocean, fueled  
47 by the exchange of turbulent heat fluxes. They may be associated with gale force winds, intense  
48 precipitation, high waves, and freezing sea-spray, posing a severe threat to maritime vessels. PLs  
49 have a small *warm core* sustained by moist convection over ocean that is often nested in a larger-  
50 scale cold anomaly, distinguishing them from standard midlatitude baroclinic cyclones. In this  
51 regard, they are similar to tropical cyclones (TCs) albeit occurring over relatively colder seas  
52 and associated with much shorter lifecycles. Emanuel and Rotunno (1989) confirmed through  
53 numerical experiments that intense TC like storms can indeed develop in the high latitude ocean  
54 environment, referring to such storms as "Arctic Hurricanes". Similarities have also been drawn

55 between PLs and Mediterranean Sea Tropical-like cyclones (T-LCs) alternatively referred to as  
56 “Medicanes” (Rasmussen and Zick 1987; Businger and Reed 1989; Reale and Atlas 2001; Tous  
57 et al. 2013; Romero and Emanuel 2016; Mazza et al. 2017; Miglietta et al. 2017; Pytharoulis 2018;  
58 Almazroui et al. 2018; Miglietta and Rotunno 2019). PLs and Mediterranean Sea T-LCs represent  
59 two examples of a continuum of convectively-driven mesoscale cyclones that form over ice-free  
60 waters outside of the tropics, evolving from or into baroclinically driven disturbances (Hart 2003).

61 High latent and sensible heat flux totals from the ocean surface, typically on the order of  
62  $500W m^{-2}$  or greater, are necessary for tropical cyclone development and maintenance. Fluxes  
63 of comparable magnitude can also exist in high latitudes, often in association with strong air-sea  
64 temperature differences consequent to cold polar continental or Arctic air outbreaks over relatively  
65 warm and ice-free ocean, although the ratio between sensible and latent heat flux is larger than  
66 in the tropics. As with TCs, enhanced surface heat fluxes establish a favorable environment for  
67 moist adiabatic instability and convection, but are not sufficient for PL cyclogenesis. Pre-existing  
68 baroclinic instability that may be associated with synoptic forcings such as cold upper troughs or  
69 cut-off lows (Businger and Reed 1989; Rasmussen and Cederskov 1994; Rasmussen et al. 1996;  
70 Parker and Hudson 1991; Noer and Ovhd 2003), is often the source of cyclonic vorticity associated  
71 with PL development (Harrold and Browning 1969; Reed and Duncan 1987; Reed 1979; Sardie and  
72 Warner 1985; Emanuel and Rotunno 1989; Spengler et al. 2017). Numerical model simulations  
73 carried out by Føre et al. (2012) to investigate an intense Arctic PL observed in the Barents Sea  
74 during December 2002 suggest that baroclinic instability is important during its initial growth  
75 phase, while surface heat fluxes contribute to its mature, convectively-driven phase.

76 As for classifying different types of PLs, “comma shaped” PLs, associated with weak or moderate  
77 surface fluxes, as opposed to “spiral cloud” PLs, characterized by deep convection (Rasmussen  
78 and Cederskov 1994; Businger and Reed 1989), have been observed. Claud et al. (2009a) noted

79 that comma cloud vortices typically represent deep baroclinity occurring within the larger circu-  
80 lation of frontal cyclones whereas spiral cloudform PLs tend to occur within cold air under more  
81 barotropic and convective conditions. Terpstra et al. (2016) and Spengler et al. (2017) proposed a  
82 unifying moist baroclinic paradigm based on the angle between the thermal wind and mean wind,  
83 separating forward shear versus reverse shear environments, the former being characterized by  
84 deep baroclinity, and the latter associated with occlusions and shallow low-level baroclinity.

85 Among other possible mechanisms contributing to PL genesis, convective instability of the  
86 second kind (CISK), as for TCs, was considered (Rasmussen 1979, 1985). In addition, barotropic  
87 instability associated with horizontal wind shear of the background flow (Rasmussen and Cederskov  
88 1994; Rasmussen et al. 1996; Asai and Miura 1981), has been investigated. The modeling study  
89 by Nagata (1993) found that low-level barotropic shear instability was the dominant mechanism for  
90 the development of meso- $\beta$  cyclones along the Japan sea Polar airmass Convergence Zone (JPCZ),  
91 and Kawashima and Fujiyoshi (2005) showed that meso- $\gamma$ -scale polar cyclones off the west coast  
92 of Hokkaido Island also extracted energy from a line of low-level horizontal shear. The study of  
93 a Mediterranean Sea T-LC by Reale and Atlas (2001) showed that strong horizontal wind shear at  
94 the jet level coupled with weak vertical wind shear slightly to the north of the jet, supported the  
95 growth of a vertically aligned vorticity column through extraction of kinetic energy from the jet  
96 via barotropic instability, in concurrence with other contributing factors of elevated surface fluxes  
97 and low-level convergence.

#### 98 *b. Polar Lows in global analyses*

99 The representation of polar lows in state-of-the-art global analyses is affected by difficulties  
100 comparable to the ones that existed for tropical cyclones in the mid 2000s. At that time, global  
101 operational forecasting systems were steadily improving their representation of TCs and track

102 prediction, however, intensity was vastly underestimated partly due to insufficient horizontal res-  
103 olution, wherein only signatures of tropical cyclones (such as “warm core eddies interpreted as  
104 tropical storms”) were used as indication of TC activity in climate models (Bengtsston et al. 2007).  
105 Currently, operational global analyses (with horizontal resolution of the order of about 10–15 km),  
106 as well as high-resolution climate models, contain increasingly more realistic depictions of tropical  
107 cyclones, but the same cannot yet be said for polar lows. Quite often, PLs (and T-LCs) are either  
108 missed or not fully resolved in global analyses and models, and a clear sea-level pressure minimum  
109 is not always detected. The analysis of PLs is more challenging than TCs because of: a) their  
110 smaller scale, of the order of few hundreds of kilometers, b) rapid development, involving multi-  
111 scale processes, c) much shorter lifespan, often of a day or less, d) erratic behavior, e) sparsity  
112 of conventional observations in high-latitude oceanic regions, f) poor coverage by geostationary  
113 satellites in the high latitudes and, most important, g) *difficulty of objectively validating the analysis*.

114 In fact, unlike TCs, a global, comprehensive, observation-based “best track” data base for PLs  
115 does not yet exist. Although a clear PL detection from infrared or microwave sensors onboard  
116 polar orbiting platforms is possible, very often, it is difficult to establish continuity because a PL  
117 can drastically change or even disappear between one satellite pass and the next. Moreover, as  
118 mentioned above, there is limited coverage of geostationary imagery at high latitudes.

119 In particular, infrared radiances from the High resolution Infrared Radiation Sounder (HIRS),  
120 Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), and the MODerate resolution Imaging  
121 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) have been used to study the cloud structure associated with PLs  
122 (Claud et al. 1993; Blechschmidt 2008; Inoue et al. 2010; Noer et al. 2011; Bobylev et al. 2011;  
123 Rojo et al. 2015), whereas microwave radiometer measurements from the Advanced Microwave  
124 Sounding Unit (AMSU-A and AMSU-B) and Microwave Humidity Sounder (MHS) have been  
125 used to detect brightness temperature signal produced by the warm core and/or cloud properties

126 associated with PLs (Moore and Vonder Haar 2003; Claud et al. 2009b; Melsheimer et al. 2015).  
127 Relevant to our study, the AMSU-B 183 *GHz* channels are robust in detecting convective PLs due  
128 to their sensitivity to the scattering by hydrometeors (Claud et al. 2009b).

129 However, the above observations are not sufficient to create a global, comprehensive PL data  
130 set. Tracking datasets for PLs are limited to northern hemispheric storms (Condron et al. 2006;  
131 Xia et al. 2012; Mallet et al. 2013; Zappa et al. 2014; Laffineur et al. 2014; Watanabe et al. 2016;  
132 Yanase et al. 2016), with the exception of Verezemskaya et al. (2017) who created a reference  
133 dataset for Southern Ocean PLs and mesoscale cyclones.

134 This paper describes a set of Observing System Experiments (OSEs) focused on improving the  
135 analyzed representation of such storms in a global three-dimensional variational (3DVAR) data  
136 assimilation system (DAS) through the ingestion of adaptively thinned hyperspectral InfraRed (IR)  
137 radiances including over partly cloudy regions. Three cases from the year 2014 are chosen, viz., a  
138 northern hemisphere PL, a southern hemisphere PL, and a Mediterranean Sea T-LC. The storms are  
139 discriminated as systems forming poleward of the jet stream, following the approach by Ninomiya  
140 (1989) and Blechschmidt (2008). For the Southern Ocean PL, results from Verezemskaya et al.  
141 (2017) are used as guidance to identify the large-scale environment conducive for its occurrence  
142 and growth. Of particular concern for this study is the significance of dynamic instability occurring  
143 poleward of the jet in the pre-cyclogenetic environment of PLs and T-LCs.

144 The article is organized as follows: Section 2 summarizes the progress towards assimilation of  
145 cloud-cleared hyperspectral IR radiances, Section 3 describes the model, data assimilation system,  
146 and adaptive thinning procedure used in this work, Section 4 provides a brief synoptic background  
147 for each storm and the rationale for the experiment set up, Section 5 discusses the results, and  
148 Section 6 offers summary and conclusions of this work.

## 2. Assimilation of cloud-cleared infrared radiances

The cloud-clearing methodology described in Chahine (1974, 1977); Chahine et al. (2006); Susskind et al. (2003); Susskind et al. (2006, 2010), allows to produce IR data in areas that are partly cloudy based on the assumption that cloud formations remain invariant whereas cloud fractions differ within a retrieval Field of Regard (FOR) which consists of multiple Fields of View (FOVs). For each FOR, this assumption allows to estimate cloud effects as proportional to cloud fraction using simple multiple linear equations, without modeling or prior knowledge of cloud optical and spectral properties.  $3 \times 3$  FOVs constitute 1 FOR in the case of the Atmospheric InfraRed Sounder (AIRS) onboard NASA Aqua satellite which is the dataset used for assimilating adaptively thinned and cloud-cleared IR radiances in our study.

Early studies comparing the assimilation of AIRS cloud-cleared retrievals with clear-sky radiances, aside from documenting an improvement in global forecast skill (Reale et al. 2008), described a positive impact on the representation of tropical cyclogenetic processes and TCs over the Atlantic Ocean (Wu et al. 2006; Reale et al. 2009b), and on the analysis and forecast of a particularly challenging storm: the infamous TC Nargis (Reale et al. 2009a) which was missed in the operational analyses of the time despite having reached sustained winds in excess of  $32 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . In addition, assimilation of AIRS cloud-cleared retrievals was shown to improve the prediction of extreme precipitation associated with hurricanes (Zhou et al. 2010) and large-scale synoptic forcings (Reale et al. 2012). In spite of the benefits of assimilating IR information derived in the presence of clouds as demonstrated by these studies, it could not be adopted in an operational context: operational centers worldwide had since long opted for radiance assimilation over retrievals, because of better control of errors and latency.

171 Attempts of assimilating IR radiances affected by clouds have been very encouraging but sporadic.  
172 Pangaud et al. (2009) showed that assimilating AIRS radiances affected by mid- to low-level clouds  
173 had a positive impact on the development, track, and intensity forecast of a Mediterranean T-LC;  
174 Singh et al. (2011) demonstrated improvements in mesoscale predictions over the Indian region;  
175 while Wang et al. (2017) explored the impact on Atlantic TCs.

176 More recently, Reale et al. (2018), while investigating the assimilation of AIRS cloud-cleared  
177 radiances (CCRs) and possible obstacles that may have hindered their use, demonstrated that AIRS  
178 CCRs must be thinned more aggressively, i.e., assimilated at a much *lower density* globally,  
179 compared to clear-sky radiances in order to produce a positive impact. Since AIRS CCRs are  
180 obtained by combining 9 FOVs, they are likely to have a broader spatial representativeness and/or  
181 higher horizontal error correlation, which in turn requires more aggressive thinning prior to  
182 assimilation. Reale et al. (2018) found the best global forecast skill when assimilating AIRS CCRs  
183 at roughly  $\sim 1/4^{th}$  density of clear-sky. In order to further improve their impact, Reale et al. (2018)  
184 proposed a simple adaptive thinning methodology that uses two different thinning levels, which  
185 leads to assimilation of AIRS CCRs at a lower density globally, and higher density only around  
186 TCs. This approach is consistent with the idea that additional data are beneficial when horizontal  
187 gradients are stronger, and that denser AIRS coverage could improve sampling the temperature  
188 gradients associated with the TC upper tropospheric outflow. This simple two-density approach  
189 for cloud-cleared IR data assimilation was found to be successful in improving the analyzed  
190 representation and forecast of TCs, without deteriorating the global skill (Reale et al. 2018).

191 The assimilation of AIRS CCRs benefits the TC analysis and forecasts because of an improved  
192 thermal representation of the upper troposphere occurring at the very edges of the TC: a small but  
193 sharp temperature contrast between the TC outflow and the surrounding cloud-free areas, which  
194 results in the TC becoming slightly warmer than the surrounding cloud-free environment. The

195 temperature anomaly propagates to the lower-levels through hydrostatic adjustment and creates a  
196 deeper, more accurately placed, and more confined circulation (Reale et al. 2009a). A similar  
197 consequence of the assimilation of cloud-cleared AIRS information was noted at the edges of large  
198 convective systems (Reale et al. 2009b) and, in the vicinity of broken Arctic stratus clouds, wherein  
199 the ingestion of AIRS CCRs allowed adjustments to the representation of lower tropospheric  
200 temperatures and midtropospheric geopotential height, which, in turn, was found to be beneficial  
201 in improving the forecast of individual midlatitude baroclinic waves (McGrath-Spangler et al.  
202 2021).

203 The objective of the current work is to show that an adaptive thinning methodology for CCRs, as  
204 done for TCs (Reale et al. 2018), can be successfully applied to extratropical mesoscale convective  
205 cyclones such as Polar Lows and Mediterranean T-LCs. A set of OSEs is presented, and the analyzed  
206 representation of three storms are investigated in each experiment, viz., a PL that developed over the  
207 Okhotsk Sea on 10 October 2014, a Southern Ocean Antarctic PL that developed on 23 September  
208 2014, and a Mediterranean Sea T-LC (named “Qendresa”) observed on 7 November 2014.

### 209 **3. Methodology**

#### 210 *a. Model and Data Assimilation System*

211 The OSEs discussed in this study were performed using the NASA Goddard Earth Observing  
212 System (GEOS) data assimilation and forecast system (version 5.13.0p1), which is developed at  
213 the Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) and combines a 3DVAR DAS based on the  
214 Gridpoint Statistical Interpolation (GSI) analysis scheme (Wu et al. 2002; Kleist et al. 2009b), with  
215 a cubed-sphere, hydrostatic global atmospheric model (Molod et al. 2012), run at approximately a  
216 quarter degree horizontal resolution with 72 vertical layers. The DAS used in these experiments

217 is very close to the one adopted for the production of the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for  
218 Research and Applications, version 2, which is documented by Gelaro et al. (2017) and includes  
219 several modifications compared to the earlier GEOS described by Rienecker et al. (2008). The  
220 minimization procedure uses a tangent linear mode constraint (Kleist et al. 2009a) whereas the  
221 terms in the background error covariance matrix are estimated following the methodology created  
222 by Parrish and Derber (1992), i.e., by calculating departures in the 24- and 48- hour forecasts. It  
223 should be clarified that the GEOS used in this research is not the current version adopted by the  
224 GMAO, which at the time of this article operates a hybrid four-dimensional ensemble variational  
225 system (4DEnVAR). The choice of the 3DVAR version was necessary because OSEs must be  
226 performed with a frozen system. The control references runs had been already produced with  
227 the 3DVAR version (version 5.13.0p1), and any new experiment had to follow the same setup.  
228 Furthermore, OSEs are very computationally expensive and to create new control runs was not  
229 possible.

### 230 *b. Experiment setup*

231 The purpose of the OSEs described in this article is to propose a strategy to improve the analyzed  
232 representation of three individual storms, each quite representative of its own, selected from the  
233 boreal fall period of 2014. The two key points are to demonstrate the usefulness of cloud-cleared  
234 radiances, and the importance of adaptively thinning the radiances prior to assimilation.

235 Two reference experiments, serving as control, are used to assess the impact of the proposed  
236 methodology. The first control experiment, named RAD, is run from 1 September to 10 November  
237 2014, assimilating all operationally used observations at that time, including AIRS clear-sky  
238 radiances thinned through a  $145\text{ km} \times 145\text{ km}$  regular grid. This experiment mimics the operational  
239 setup at that time. The second reference experiment, named CLD3, is run for the same time

240 period but assimilates AIRS CCRs instead of clear-sky radiances, thinned regularly using a grid of  
241  $300\text{ km} \times 300\text{ km}$  ( $\sim 1/4^{th}$  of the radiances assimilated in RAD, which was found to be the optimal  
242 global density for assimilation of CCRs). Both RAD and CLD3 are the same as in Reale et al.  
243 (2018), and are also compared in the recent work by McGrath-Spangler et al. (2021).

244 The experiments named SThinPL, which are the core of this study, result from the design and  
245 implementation of an innovative adaptive thinning strategy for AIRS CCRs, targeting three different  
246 mesoscale convective cyclones occurring outside the deep tropics. SThinPL uses the same global  
247 thinning box as CLD3 except in the vicinity of the storms as described in the following section.

### 248 *c. Design of adaptive thinning experiments for Polar Lows*

249 The adaptive thinning methodology for TCs described by Reale et al. (2018) requires a TC-  
250 centered moving domain, called “TC domain”, that follows the TC throughout its lifetime. Within  
251 the TC domain, thinning boxes are smaller, which means that radiances are assimilated at a higher  
252 density compared to outside the domain. TC center positions can be obtained in real-time from  
253 the so-called TC-vitals (Trahan and Sparling 2012). For research purposes, TC center positions  
254 in delayed time are obtained from the National Hurricane Center–Joint Typhoon Warning Center  
255 TC Best Track database (Knapp et al. 2010). The concept of the TC-centered adaptive thinning  
256 methodology is visually illustrated in Reale et al. (2018), their Figure 8. The TC vitals message,  
257 containing presence and position information, activates a switch in the thinning levels, wherein  
258 the thinning boxes become smaller within the moving TC domain. Once the TC is dissipated, if no  
259 other TCs are present elsewhere, TC vitals data are no longer received, and thinning again resumes  
260 to being globally homogenous. For the GEOS version used by Reale et al. (2018), which is the  
261 same version used in this study, the optimal adaptive thinning parameters resulting out of several

262 experiments were: TC domain size of  $15^{\circ} \times 15^{\circ}$ , thinning box of  $300\text{ km} \times 300\text{ km}$  globally, and  
263 thinning box of  $145\text{ km} \times 145\text{ km}$  inside the TC domain.

264 For the purpose of this work, which is to provide a roadmap to improve operational predictions  
265 of Polar Lows and extratropical mesoscale convective cyclones, the major obstacle is that a global  
266 real-time standardized message on PL existence/position does not exist, nor any global datasets  
267 comparable to TC Best Track.

268 In lieu of such a dataset for PLs, remote sensing observations, synoptic information, and analyses,  
269 have been comprehensively combined for each storm, to detect their presence and to estimate their  
270 position and spatial and temporal evolution, with the underlying goal of showcasing a common  
271 aspect in the identification and tracking of the storms that could allow for automated activation of  
272 PL domains in the future.

273 Specifically, AMSU-B and MHS brightness temperatures (BT) from the  $183.31\text{ GHz}$  channel are  
274 used for detecting PLs (following Claud et al. (2009b)), while the corresponding cloud structure is  
275 investigated using MODIS true color image which are composites produced from three wavelengths  
276 of the visible spectrum (centered at  $645\text{ nm}$ ,  $555\text{ nm}$ , and  $469\text{ nm}$ ). When the storm position can be  
277 localized with the the above-referred satellite data and/or additional synoptic information, the “PL  
278 domain” is centered on such positions.

279 However, because of the short-lasting nature of such systems, information from the model  
280 analysis in the time-steps preceding the storm’s appearance are also used to identify cyclogenetic  
281 dynamical forcings, which in this work, is assumed to occur in the cyclonically sheared portion  
282 of the jet stream where maximum horizontal velocity gradients exist. It is worth noting that all  
283 three storms investigated in this work occur poleward of the jet stream or one of its meanders, i.e.,  
284 in the region with potential for maximum cyclonic shear. Within PL domains, AIRS CCRs are  
285 assimilated at higher density or, in other words, using smaller thinning boxes ( $145\text{ km} \times 145\text{ km}$ ),

286 whereas  $300\text{ km} \times 300\text{ km}$  thinning boxes (i.e. lower density) are used globally outside the PL  
287 domains. A schematic of the methodology is presented in Figure 1 to illustrate the case of a  
288 moving PL domain following the jet maximum, and always positioned on its poleward side. The  
289 following section provides brief synoptic descriptions, rationale for identification, and the design  
290 of the PL domain for each of the three storms.

#### 291 **4. Synoptic discussion, Identification, and Thinning Strategy**

##### 292 *a. Polar Low in the Sea of Okhotsk*

293 On 10 October 2014 an intense PL is identified in the Okhotsk Sea (northwestern Pacific) by the  
294 Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA). The presence of the storm is confirmed by satellite data: in  
295 fact, the Aqua MODIS true color image at 0335 UTC on 10 October 2014 shows a spiral cloud  
296 formation over the area (Figure 2(a)). A minimum in AMSU-B/MHS brightness temperatures (0156  
297 to 0350 UTC on 10 October; Figure 2(b)) is located around  $143^\circ\text{ E}$  and  $46^\circ\text{ N}$ , off the southern  
298 coast of Sakhalin, indicating convective cloud top associated with the spiral cloud. It is surrounded  
299 by higher brightness temperature values indicating clear regions of subsidence between the spiral  
300 bands. Based on satellite information, this appears to be an example of an intense convective polar  
301 low. The 0600 UTC surface weather chart analysis produced by the JMA (Figure 2(c)), confirms  
302 a polar low at this location, with a central pressure of  $992\text{ hPa}$ .

303 Ninomiya (1989) found that PLs occur frequently during October to April in the Okhotsk sea,  
304 often developing in the vicinity of a midtropospheric cutoff low or a mesoscale vortex embedded  
305 within a synoptic scale trough, to the west-southwest of the main synoptic low that is typically  
306 located over the Aleutian Islands. In the RAD analysis at 06z 10 October 2014 (Figure 3), an  
307 occluded synoptic cyclone is evident just west of the Aleutian Islands, and a baroclinically active

308 surface low is evident to its W-SW (off the southern coast of Sakhalin) matching in geographical  
309 location with the observed PL (Figure 2(c)). This surface low occurs to the southeast of the  
310 mid-tropospheric synoptic scale trough situated along the Siberian coastline, and is vertically  
311 aligned with an upper-level mesoscale vortex embedded within the synoptic trough (Figure 3), in  
312 remarkable consistency with the PL genesis mechanism described by Ninomiya (1989).

313 This mesoscale instability, in fact, appears to originate in the upstream flow over Central Asia to  
314 the east of the Altai mountain range between 00z to 12z 08 October 2014 as shown in the vorticity  
315 field of RAD analysis (Figure 4), associated with strong horizontal velocity gradients of the jet  
316 streak. White et al. (2017) found that the orography of Mongolian mountains is an important  
317 influence on the upper-level jet and Pacific wintertime atmospheric circulation. The downstream  
318 positive vorticity anomaly caused by lee cyclogenesis depends on the horizontal wind speed of  
319 the jet. The top panel of Figure 4, shows upper-level wind speeds of the order of  $60\text{ms}^{-1}$  directly  
320 above the mountain range and to the west of a shallow mesoscale vortex. Strong horizontal velocity  
321 gradients can be noted on the cyclonically sheared side of the jet, while vertical shear poleward of  
322 the jet is virtually zero, which suggests the possibility of barotropic instability at the jet level. As  
323 the jet propagates eastward and downstream of the mountain, its core (region of maximum winds)  
324 splits into two, yielding separate jet streaks (bottom panel of Figure 4). The shallow mesoscale  
325 vortex simultaneously expands into the upper troposphere (center and bottom panels of Figure 4)  
326 likely aided by upper-level divergence (rising motion) that is known to occur to the poleward side  
327 of the exit region of the jet streak.

328 The  $250\text{hPa}$  streamlines show a meander developing in the jet stream around 18z 08 October  
329 (Figure 5). A surface low forms along the eastern side of the meander at 06z 09 October (Figure  
330 5), likely aided by upper-level potential vorticity advection, yielding a baroclinically unstable  
331 environment conducive for frontogenesis. The strongest horizontal temperature gradients are

332 confined to the lower troposphere (not shown) resulting in a sub-synoptic mesoscale front. Cold  
333 air advection occurs to the west-northwest of the surface low, and it undergoes rapid frontogenesis  
334 occluding in just 18 hours, leading to a favorable environment for PL genesis off the coast of  
335 Sakhalin Island. Figure 6 shows the occluded mesoscale front, and the incipient polar low at 00z  
336 10 Oct 2014. Although the PL is relatively shallow at this time, it is accompanied by low-level  
337 wind speed maxima of the order of  $24 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ , as well as the development of a warm core which is  
338 indicative of convective heating fueled by upward sensible and latent heat fluxes from the ocean to  
339 the cold continental air mass.

340 For the SThinPL experiment that assimilates variable density AIRS CCRs, a PL domain of size  
341  $8^\circ$  latitude by  $10^\circ$  longitude surrounding and following the mesoscale vortex (shown in Figure 4)  
342 is designed. For the times preceding the formation of the storm, the northern edge of the jet streak,  
343 which as noted is strongly cyclonically sheared, is assumed to play a key role in the cyclogenetic  
344 process, and the PL domain is designed to follow the potentially unstable area starting from 00z 08  
345 October (Figure 5). The enhanced density assimilation within the PL domain is performed until  
346 12z 10 October as shown in Figure 5.

#### 347 *b. Polar Low in the Southern Ocean*

348 The detection and tracking of Antarctic PLs carry the additional challenge of fewer observa-  
349 tions over the Southern Ocean, necessitating the use of analyses, in addition to satellite data, for  
350 identifying the large-scale environment that could be conducive for occurrence of these storms  
351 (Verezemskaya et al. 2017). In this article, an Antarctic PL developing on 23 September 2014 is  
352 identified with the aid of Aqua MODIS and AMSU-B/MHS brightness temperatures. Figure 7  
353 shows the Aqua MODIS true color image at 0720 UTC and the AMSU-B/MHS brightness temper-  
354 atures (between 0707 – 0854 UTC) on 23 September 2014 over the Southern Ocean. The MODIS

355 image reveals a “comma shaped” cloud occurring within a post-frontal occlusion zone off the coast  
356 of East Antarctica, in a region previously confirmed to have maximum PL frequency (Verezem-  
357 skaya et al. 2017). To the east of this feature, the cloud field associated with an occluded front is  
358 clearly evident (left panel of Figure 7). The characteristic hook shape that is commonly associated  
359 with a comma cloud PL is visible in the AMSU-B/MHS brightness temperatures (around 57° S  
360 and 111° E; right panel of Figure 7) with lower values indicative of higher convective cloud top.

361 In the RAD analysis (Figure 8), a large-scale occluded cyclonic circulation, encompassing  
362 multiple minima, is situated along the sea ice margin at 06z on 21 September 2014 extending  
363 from 50° E to 140° E. Evidence of an occluded front (shown in purple in Fig. 8), associated  
364 with one such minima (indicated as 'L' in Fig. 8) is presented. Cold, dry Antarctic air was first  
365 advected over the sea ice and then over the ice-free ocean in this situation. This low-pressure cold  
366 occlusion environment is most favorable for PL development (Verezemskaya et al. 2017). In the  
367 RAD analysis, multiple short-lived shallow vortices develop at the edge of the occluded front shown  
368 in Fig. 8. In particular, one of these grows into a spurious PL that reaches maximum intensity at  
369 12z 22 September 2014 (Fig. 9) but is not verified by AMSU-B/MHS satellite observations (Fig.  
370 10). A second PL, rapidly develops at the northeast edge of the occluded cyclone, where strong  
371 upper-level horizontal wind shear occurs on the poleward side of the jet, and reaches maximum  
372 intensity at around 12z 23 September in the RAD analysis. This system is verified in corresponding  
373 satellite observations (Figure 7). Once again, the presence of horizontal velocity gradients at the  
374 jet level appears to be a crucial dynamical forcing contributing to cyclogenetic processes for this  
375 type of systems.

376 The production of a spurious low in the analysis indicates that the model responds to a favorable  
377 environment, however, it does not have enough information to constrain the available energy.

378 The underlying working idea is that additional AIRS cloud-cleared radiances in this dynamically  
379 sensitive environment can improve the analysis.

380 In this case, as the slow-moving large-scale dynamics of the occluded cyclone are favorable for  
381 the development of PLs, the PL domain for SThinPL experiment is designed to assimilate enhanced  
382 density AIRS CCRs in a larger, relatively stationary region which encapsulates the polar jet and the  
383 area to its south (ranging between  $65^{\circ}$  S to  $45^{\circ}$  S). The domain extends from  $80^{\circ}$  E to  $110^{\circ}$  E for  
384 the period beginning 00z 18 September to 00z 23 September, and covers  $100^{\circ}$  E to  $130^{\circ}$  E for the  
385 period beginning 06z 23 September to 06z 25 September. Figure 11 shows the domain boundaries  
386 for the two periods at snapshots corresponding to the hour of maximum intensity of the two lows  
387 (spurious and observed PL) in the RAD analysis.

### 388 *c. Tropical-like Cyclone “Qendresa”*

389 T-LC “Qendresa” developed in the central Mediterranean Sea to the west of Malta at 12z 07  
390 November 2014. For this storm, Pytharoulis (2018) created a best track dataset starting from  
391 12z 07 November to 06z 08 November 2014, using 3-hour infrared imagery from the Meteosat  
392 geostationary satellite, operated by the European Organization for the Exploitation of Meteorolog-  
393 ical Satellites (EUMETSAT). The study further used 6-hour European Center for Medium-range  
394 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) operational analysis to track the storm prior to its tropical transition  
395 (from 00z - 06z 07 November) and post its extratropical transition (from 12z 08 - 00z 09 November),  
396 respectively. Therefore, the design of the SThinPL experiment focused on Qendresa is simpler,  
397 with the previously published best track data by (Pytharoulis 2018) being used to construct the PL  
398 domain.

399 Pytharoulis (2018) attributed the formation of Qendresa to low-level baroclinic instability coupled  
400 with upper-level synoptic forcing, and noted that a sea level pressure of  $\sim 984$  hPa was recorded at

401 around 1634 UTC when the storm made its first landfall at Malta. Following landfall at Malta, the  
402 T-LC continued to propagate in the east-northeast direction until 21z 07 November, then moving  
403 northward and recurving back towards Sicily to make its second landfall along its eastern coast  
404 at around 06z 08 November, as a weaker system but causing damages in the Catania area of east  
405 Sicily.

406 Figure 12(a) shows a mesoscale surface low in the RAD analysis along the edge of a warm  
407 front off the coast of Tunisia in the Gulf of Gabe at 00z 05th November 2014. Widespread deep  
408 convection was observed in the satellite imagery in the central Mediterranean Sea region from the  
409 Tyrrhenian basin to the region between Sicily and Africa on 6th November 2014 which is confirmed  
410 by local maxima in observed lightning activity (Pytharoulis 2018). A meridionally elongated cold  
411 front extending from south of Tunisia to the west of Sicily is observed at 06z 06th November 2014  
412 in the RAD analysis (Fig. 12(b)), in agreement with the ECMWF analysis (Pytharoulis 2018). In  
413 both RAD and ECMWF analyses, the T-LC originates within this pre-existing frontal low-pressure  
414 environment. As the parent low finally occludes in the central Mediterranean Sea region to the  
415 west of Malta, it transitions into a tropical storm at 12z 07th November in the RAD analysis (Fig.  
416 12(c)). This is the hour where tropical storm characteristics, such as a spiral cloud structure and  
417 cloud-free eye, were first observed in infrared satellite imagery, marking the genesis of the T-LC  
418 (Pytharoulis 2018). As there is excellent agreement of storm genesis conditions in RAD analysis  
419 with that observed in ECWMF analysis and satellite data, it is reasonable to construct a moving  
420 adaptive thinning domain using the best track dataset created by Pytharoulis (2018).

421 For the SThinPL experiment, increased density AIRS CCRs are first assimilated within a sta-  
422 tionary PL domain of size  $4^\circ$  latitude  $\times$   $5^\circ$  longitude starting from 00z 05th November to 18z  
423 06th November 2014, in the region to the north of Africa and south of Sicily where a prolonged  
424 surface depression exists (as shown in Figures 12(a) and (b)). The experiment then uses the same

425 sized moving PL domain for variable density assimilation changing only the central location of the  
426 domain every 6 hours based on the best track obtained from Pytharoulis (2018).

427 It is very important to note that while information comparable to a best track dataset is used  
428 here, this storm also forms to the poleward side of the northern hemisphere subtropical jet, further  
429 corroborating the idea that the dynamical forcing associated with the cyclonically sheared side of an  
430 upper tropospheric jet could play an important role in the development of extratropical mesoscale  
431 convective cyclones, and should be explored as a feature used to automate the activation of PL  
432 domains in future modeling studies when real-time track information is not available.

433 In the following section, the storm structure, evolution, and intensity are investigated in the  
434 SThinPL experiment, and compared to the two reference experiments (RAD and CLD3). For  
435 Qendresa, as the best track (based on infrared satellite imagery) is available at 3-hourly interval, it  
436 is prudent to compare the assimilated instead of analyzed model fields from each experiment which  
437 are available at a similar higher temporal resolution as best track observations. Both assimilated  
438 and analyzed fields largely represent a blend between the GEOS model and observations, and can  
439 be used interchangeably for the purpose of our study.

## 440 **5. Results and Discussion**

### 441 *a. Sea of Okhotsk Polar Low*

442 The Okhotsk Sea PL develops in the environment of an occluded mesoscale front (Figure 6).  
443 The upper tropospheric flow, characterized by a jet stream with very strong horizontal velocity  
444 gradients, is a likely dynamical contributor to the cyclogenetic process, as noted in section 4(a).  
445 A shallow vortex forms on the cyclonically sheared side of the jet (Figure 4), and propagates  
446 along with the westerly flow into the ocean (Figure 5), where it transforms into a PL at 00z 10

447 October 2014 (Figure 6). The storm in all three analyses has higher central pressure compared  
448 to JMA observations, with SThinPL analysis having slightly lower value (better representation)  
449 compared to the two reference analyses. However, as noted previously, probably because of  
450 inadequate resolution, sea level pressure is not a good indicator of PL intensity in global analyses.  
451 Condrón et al. (2006) advocated the use of vorticity maxima instead of sea level pressure minima to  
452 investigate polar mesoscale cyclones in global reanalyses. In this paper, we use *vertically integrated*  
453 *vorticity* to assess and compare the storm's intensity between the three analyses. The maximum  
454 vertically integrated vorticity (surface to 300 hPa) at the time of its first detection (00z 10 October  
455 2014) is comparable for all three analyses. The PL continues to propagate eastward, reaching peak  
456 intensity at 12z 10 October, followed by rapid dissipation. The SThinPL analyses has stronger  
457 intensification of the storm compared to RAD and CLD3 cases.

458 Figure 13 compares the storm characteristics at 12z 10 October. The storm in the SThinPL  
459 analysis shows better alignment between the surface low and upper level vortex, a more compact  
460 warm core, stronger low-level winds, deeper and more symmetric vertical structure compared to  
461 RAD (Figure 13). The vertically integrated vorticity associated with the PL at peak intensity, which  
462 represents the “signature” of the storm, is substantially higher in SThinPL analysis (around 30% and  
463 50% more than RAD and CLD3, respectively). The strong impact obtained on the storm's vorticity  
464 signature, wind speed, vertical extent, alignment and compactness of the warm core suggests that  
465 the assimilation of higher density cloud-cleared radiances in the pre-cyclogenetic stages, within a  
466 domain centered on high horizontal velocity gradients located on the poleward edge of a jet streak,  
467 may be a successful strategy and could lead to even better results with higher model resolution.

468 *b. Southern Ocean Polar Low*

469 The Southern Ocean PL forms in a post-occlusion baroclinic environment as noted in section  
470 4(b). In Figure 14, a vorticity maximum forms at about  $110^{\circ}E$  at 00z 23 September in all three  
471 analyses. As noted previously in section 4(b), there is also a spurious low in all analyses at this  
472 time, occurring to the west of the vorticity maximum described above, which is not verified in the  
473 observations and disappears in the following time step.

474 The wind structure illustrated in the meridional cross-section (bottom panel of Fig. 14) reveals a  
475 strong upper level jet, with core at about or slightly north of  $50^{\circ}S$ , and very sharp horizontal velocity  
476 gradients between 1000 hPa and 400 hPa, with almost vertical isotachs, occurring poleward of the  
477 jet core at about  $55^{\circ}S$ . This is the location where the mesoscale vortex develops, indicating the  
478 plausibility of cyclonic vorticity production from barotropic energy conversion. Such gradients  
479 are substantially stronger in the SThinPL case, supporting the development of a stronger mesoscale  
480 vortex which is evidently shredded above 600 hPa because of vertical wind shear (right panel  
481 of Fig. 14). As the vertical wind shear relaxes in the upper levels, the vortex subsequently  
482 develops into a PL reaching maximum intensity at 12z 23 September 2014 (right panel of Fig.  
483 15) and rapidly dissipating after. The occurrence of the PL at this location is confirmed using  
484 satellite observations (Fig. 7). The 10m winds observed around this time by the Advanced  
485 Scatterometer (ASCAT) instrument onboard the EUMETSAT Metop-b satellite, confirm a tighter  
486 low-level cyclonic circulation surrounding the PL as compared to model analyses (not shown). At  
487 peak intensity, the storm in SThinPL experiment benefits from more vigorous upper-level forcing  
488 compared to RAD, as indicated by lower 500mb geopotential height values (top panel of Fig. 15)  
489 and enhanced vorticity in upper and lower levels (bottom panel of Fig. 15).

490 As a consequence, the PL in SThinPL analysis is deeper, with a more pronounced warm core,  
491 stronger vertically integrated vorticity, and better vertical alignment (Fig. 15). Figure 14 suggests  
492 that, similar to the northern hemisphere PL, the dynamical instability occurring at the poleward  
493 edge of the jet stream can be crucial for cyclogenetic processes associated with the Southern Ocean  
494 PL, and enhanced CCR assimilation in this region could lead to improved analyzed representation  
495 of the storm (Fig. 15).

### 496 *c. Tropical-like Cyclone Qendresa*

497 As discussed in section 4(c), satellite observations and model analyses confirm that T-LC Qen-  
498 dresa developed in the central Mediterranean Sea to the west of Malta at 12z 07 November 2014,  
499 and subsequently made two landfalls: first at Malta, and the second along the eastern coast of Sicily.  
500 Following the first landfall, the storm undergoes extratropical transition in all three analyses.

501 Figure 16 compares the T-LC's characteristics in the SThinPL case against RAD and CLD3  
502 analyses at 15z 07 November, which is the time-step right before the first landfall. The storm  
503 occurs at the poleward edge of the subtropical jet stream, in a region characterized by relatively  
504 weak vertical wind shear in the lower levels, coupled with relatively high horizontal winds to the  
505 south and west of the storm. The storm exhibits tropical characteristics including a warm core in  
506 all three analyses.

507 Overall, the storm in SThinPL is much more compact (compare center panel of Fig. 16), with  
508 stronger low-level vorticity, and a more pronounced warm core. Moreover, compared to the other  
509 two analyses, the SThinPL case has the maximum vertically integrated vorticity at this time, which  
510 represents the true signature of the system in the analysis. The center pressure reaches  $\sim 996 hPa$   
511 in SThinPL and is slightly deeper compared to RAD and CLD3, however, it is higher than the  
512 station observation (see discussion in section 4(c)). As noted before, sea level pressure is likely to

513 be underestimated for such small-scale storms due to the limiting horizontal resolution adopted for  
514 this work.

## 515 **6. Summary and Concluding Remarks**

516 This study is an expansion of previous work by Reale et al. (2018) who demonstrated a positive  
517 impact on the representation of Tropical Cyclones through the assimilation of *adaptively thinned*  
518 *cloud-cleared IR radiances* (as opposed to homogenously thinned clear-sky radiances) in a global  
519 modeling and data assimilation system. Here, a similar methodology is applied to Polar Lows and  
520 Tropical-like Cyclones, focusing on three storms, viz., a northern hemisphere PL, an Antarctic PL,  
521 and a Mediterranean Sea T-LC that occurred during the 2014 boreal fall period.

522 The adaptive thinning methodology proposed by Reale et al. (2018) uses a homogenous thinning  
523 box for assimilating hyperspectral IR radiances globally except when TCs are present. In the  
524 presence of TCs, IR radiances are thinned less aggressively, with smaller thinning boxes (i.e. more  
525 radiances being assimilated) inside a moving domain centered on the TC. A trigger, containing  
526 information on TC existence and position as provided by the TC-vitals (in real-time) or Best  
527 Track information (for hindcasting experiments), is needed to activate and de-activate the adaptive  
528 procedure. The activation of the trigger is performed from the time in which a storm is detected at  
529 its earliest stage (i.e., tropical depression) until it ceases to exist or transitions to an extratropical  
530 system.

531 The challenge faced in this work is that information comparable to TC-vitals does not exist for  
532 Polar Lows on a global scale. Furthermore, even when PLs can be identified from satellite imagery  
533 or other observations, their development and dissipation can be extremely short-lived (sometimes  
534 lasting for only 12 hours), therefore limiting the duration, and most likely, the effectiveness of  
535 the adaptive procedure. In an attempt to obviate these limitations, a comprehensive assortment of

536 synoptic, model, and satellite information are reviewed and used to identify and track the instability  
537 associated with these storms. While the review process and background for the three storms are  
538 significantly different, this work identifies one common aspect between them: all three storms  
539 form on the poleward side of a subtropical or polar jet. Specifically, it is shown that strong local  
540 wind speed maxima traveling within the jet precedes the formation of each system. In order to  
541 allow enhanced density IR radiance assimilation, activation of a moving "PL domain" positioned  
542 on the area poleward of this speed maxima in the hours preceding the formation of the storm, and  
543 thereafter following the storm, is plausible, and allows for an improved representation of the storm  
544 in the model analysis.

545 The analyses obtained with the adaptive procedure described in this study for each storm are  
546 compared against the analyses produced by assimilation of homogeneously thinned AIRS clear-  
547 sky radiances and homogeneous thinned AIRS cloud-cleared radiances. For each storm, a positive  
548 impact on intensity and storm structure is noted (specifically, on vertically integrated relative  
549 vorticity maxima, warm core strength, depth, symmetry, vertical alignment, and compactness). All  
550 these results are in agreement with the findings by Reale et al. (2018), suggesting that enhancing  
551 the representation of temperature gradients between the cloud top edges and the surrounding  
552 environment (which is a direct consequence of assimilation of CCRs) leads to better analyzed  
553 storms. Even though the adaptive thinning methodology adopted in this study has demonstrated  
554 a positive impact on the analyzed representation of PLs in the NASA GEOS system, it should  
555 be clarified that an accurate representation of PL intensity and structure continues to remain  
556 challenging for global analyses and models due to their small size, dominance of convective  
557 processes, explosive development in poorly observed oceanic regions, and difficulty in objectively  
558 validating them in analysis.

559 In summary, this study indicates a possible pathway for an automated adaptive thinning method-  
560 ology for IR radiances centered on local wind speed maxima at the jet level, as defined by the  
561 background or immediately preceding analyses, in order to better represent marine extratropical  
562 mesoscale convective cyclones. The rationale for such an approach is supported by decades of  
563 work indicating PLs preferred formation on the poleward edge of a polar jet stream in a region with  
564 strong horizontal wind speed gradients (Reed 1979; Ninomiya 1989; Rasmussen and Turner 2003;  
565 Blechschmidt 2008). Reale and Atlas (2001) suggested that jet-level barotropic instability could  
566 be a contributing factor to small-scale convective cyclones in the extra tropics, in the presence of  
567 extremely high horizontal wind shear that is large enough to overcome the Coriolis parameter at  
568 the given latitude.

569 Some caveats associated with this work are: the limited number of case studies, the use of a  
570 3DVAR framework, and the focus on a single hyperspectral IR sensor (viz. AIRS). However, the  
571 methodology is being tested in the hybrid 4DEnVAR assimilation system currently adopted by the  
572 operational GEOS with promising results. Furthermore, preliminary successful results (not shown  
573 in this work) with the Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS) on board NOAA satellites suggest that  
574 the cloud-clearing methodology and TC-based adaptive thinning approach are applicable to other  
575 infrared sensors producing comparable or better results. Assimilation of IR radiances from the  
576 Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) onboard European polar-orbiting MetOp  
577 meteorological satellites has already shown a positive impact on the forecast of Arctic PLs even  
578 when assimilating clear-sky radiances (e.g., the regional modeling study by Randriamampianina  
579 et al. (2011)). The implementation of adaptive methodologies and the improved use of IR radiances  
580 in areas affected by clouds, as suggested by this study, may prove beneficial also to the current  
581 IASI and future IR sensors.

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589 (DAAC) Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services Center (GES DISC).

590 *Data availability statement.* The numerical model simulations upon which this study is based  
591 are too large to archive or to transfer. Instead, we provide all the information needed to replicate  
592 the simulations; we used the NASA Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS) model and 3DVAR  
593 data assimilation system (version 5.13.0p1). The GEOS source code is available under the NASA  
594 Open-Source Agreement at <http://opensource.gsfc.nasa.gov/projects/GEOS-5>. The AIRS CCRs  
595 can be downloaded at <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/>. MODIS true color images can be obtained at  
596 <https://neo.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/>. The AMSU-B and MHS Brightness Temperature data are available  
597 at <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/>. The JMA Surface Weather Chart can be obtained from the Japan  
598 Meteorological Agency website at <https://www.data.jma.go.jp/fcd/yoho/wxchart/>

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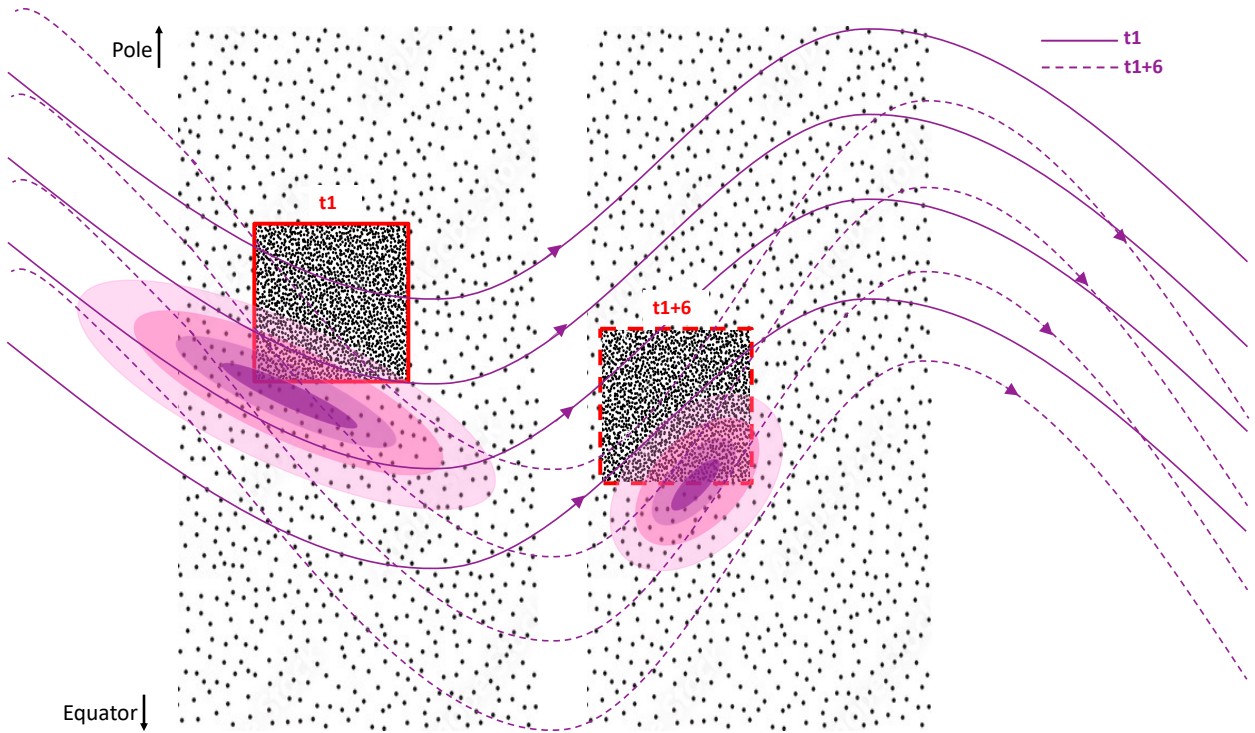
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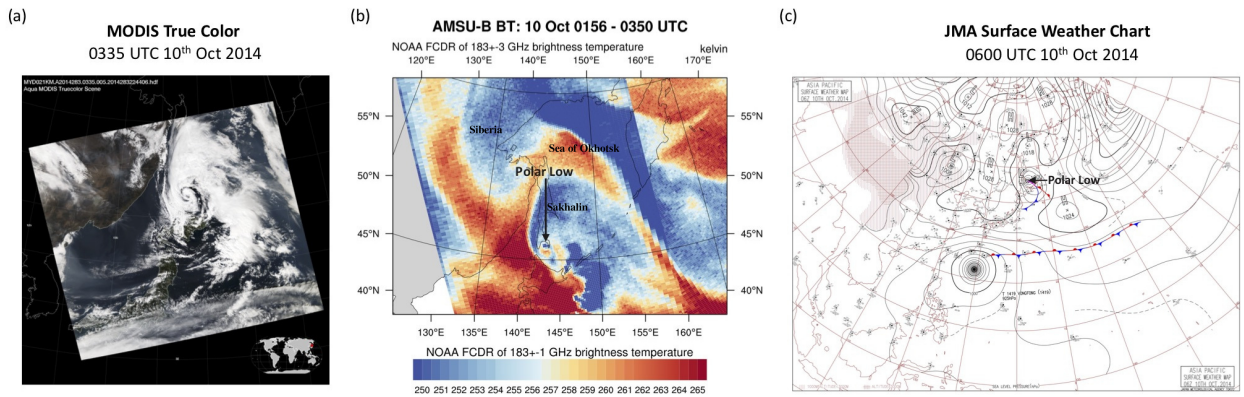
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863		
864	<b>Fig. 1.</b>	Conceptual representation of feature-based adaptive thinning of AIRS radiances. In this case, the adaptive thinning domain follows the highest velocity gradients associated with a jet speed maximum (shaded ellipse) at times ‘t1’ and ‘t1+6’ hours in the analysis. The jet is represented by purple streamlines at times t1 (solid) and t1+6 (dashed) hours, respectively. A moving domain (red box) is activated on the cyclonically sheared side of the jet speed maximum, encompassing the poleward side of the region with strongest horizontal velocity gradients, at times t1 (red solid) and t1+6 (red dashed) hours, respectively. AIRS radiances are assimilated at 145 km x 145 km density inside the moving domain, as indicated by the dense black dots, whereas a thinning level of 300 km (about 1/4th density) is used for assimilation outside the domain (sparse black dots). . . . . 43
874	<b>Fig. 2.</b>	Observations of spiral cloud over the Sea of Okhotsk from (a) MODIS true color image and (b) AMSU-B/MHS 183.3 GHz brightness temperatures (K); (c) surface weather chart analysis on 10 October 2014. “ <i>JMA Surface Weather Chart</i> ” (from the Japan Meteorological Agency website). . . . . 44
878	<b>Fig. 3.</b>	The 850hPa temperature (°C; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; thin contour), and 500hPa geopotential height (meters; thick contour) observed at 06z 10 October 2014 in the RAD analysis. . . . . 45
881	<b>Fig. 4.</b>	(left) The 250hPa wind vector (arrows) and wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), 500hPa geopotential height (meters; black contour), and the vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) showing the origin of the mesoscale vortex in RAD analysis; (center) longitude-height and (right) latitude-height cross-section of the vortex showing wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature (°C; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour). . . . . 46
886	<b>Fig. 5.</b>	The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), sea level pressure (hPa; shaded contours), and the vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) in the 6-hourly RAD analysis from 00z 08 October to 12z 10 October 2014. The PL domain used for adaptive thinning of AIRS CCRs is shown in black. . . . . 47
890	<b>Fig. 6.</b>	(left) The 850hPa temperature (°C; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; thin black contour), and 700 hPa geopotential height (meters; thick black contour) observed at 00z 10 October 2014 in the RAD analysis showing an occluded mesoscale front, and (right) latitude-height cross-section of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature (°C; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) showing the incipient polar low. . . . . 48
895	<b>Fig. 7.</b>	Observations of comma cloud over the Southern Ocean from (left) MODIS true color image (also showing the cloud field associated with an occluded front) and (right) AMSU-B/MHS 183.3 GHz brightness temperatures (K) on 23 September 2014. . . . . 49
898	<b>Fig. 8.</b>	The 850hPa temperature (°C; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; thin black contour), 500mb geopotential height (meters; thick black contour) at 06z 21 September 2014 in the RAD analysis. The sea ice margin (defined as sea ice fraction ranging between 0.5 to 0.15) is indicated by grey contours. The occluded front is indicated in purple, and the associated surface low is indicated by the letter "L" in red. . . . . 50
903	<b>Fig. 9.</b>	(top) The 850hPa temperature (°C; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) observed at 12z 22 September 2014 during the mature phase of the spurious low in the RAD analysis (not observed), and (bottom) vertical cross-sections of the wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded),

907	temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the core of the	
908	spurious low. . . . .	51
909	<b>Fig. 10.</b> The AMSU-B/MHS 183.3 GHz brightness temperatures (K) observations between 0718-	
910	0906 UTC 22 September 2014, confirming the absence of convective clouds. The black star	
911	indicates the position of the spurious low (false positive) in the RAD analysis at this time. . . . .	52
912	<b>Fig. 11.</b> As in Figure 8 but for (left) 12z 22 September and (right) 12z 23 September 2014. The	
913	position of the spurious low (not observed) and Polar Low (observed) in RAD analysis is	
914	indicated, and the PL domain used for adaptive thinning of AIRS CCRs is shown in red. . . . .	53
915	<b>Fig. 12.</b> The 850hPa temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; grey contour), and 500 hPa	
916	geopotential height (meters; black contour) observed at (a) 00z 05 November 2014 showing	
917	a mesoscale surface low along the edge of a warm front, (b) 06z 06 November 2014 showing	
918	a mesoscale surface low along the edge of a cold front, and (c) 12z 07 November 2014	
919	showing an occluded front marking the genesis of T-LC Qendresa in the RAD analysis. The	
920	black box shows the PL domain used for adaptive thinning of AIRS CCRs. . . . .	54
921	<b>Fig. 13.</b> (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters;	
922	blue shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity from	
923	surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model analyses at 12z 10 October	
924	2014 (time of peak intensity of the Okhotsk Sea PL) and (bottom) zonal and meridional	
925	cross-sections of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity	
926	( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the PL core. . . . .	55
927	<b>Fig. 14.</b> (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters;	
928	blue shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity from	
929	surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model analyses during the genesis	
930	phase of the Southern Ocean PL, and (bottom) zonal and meridional cross-sections of wind	
931	speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour)	
932	across the vortex. . . . .	56
933	<b>Fig. 15.</b> (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters;	
934	blue shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity	
935	from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model analyses at 12z	
936	23 September 2014 (time of peak intensity of the Antarctic PL) , and (bottom) zonal and	
937	meridional cross-sections of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour),	
938	and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the vortex . . . . .	57
939	<b>Fig. 16.</b> (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters;	
940	blue shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity	
941	from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model experiments prior	
942	to landfall at Malta, and (bottom) zonal and meridional cross-sections of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ;	
943	shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the T-LC	
944	core. . . . .	58

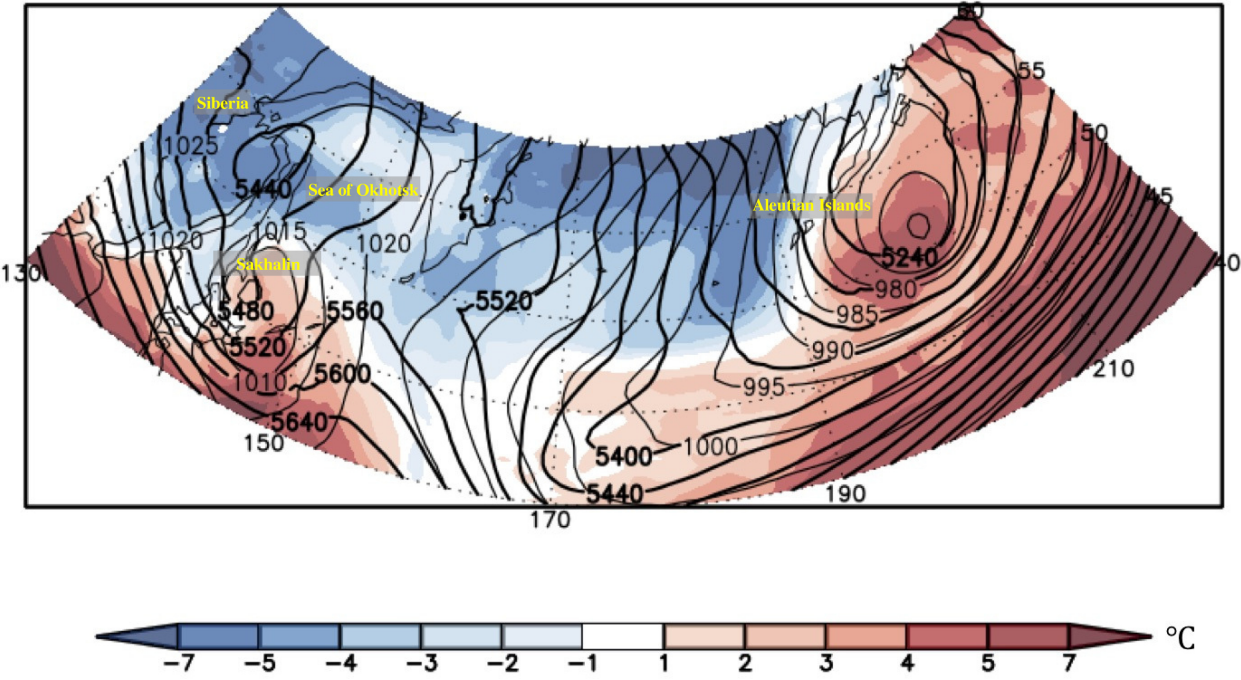


945 FIG. 1. Conceptual representation of feature-based adaptive thinning of AIRS radiances. In this case, the  
 946 adaptive thinning domain follows the highest velocity gradients associated with a jet speed maximum (shaded  
 947 ellipse) at times 't1' and 't1+6' hours in the analysis. The jet is represented by purple streamlines at times t1  
 948 (solid) and t1+6 (dashed) hours, respectively. A moving domain (red box) is activated on the cyclonically sheared  
 949 side of the jet speed maximum, encompassing the poleward side of the region with strongest horizontal velocity  
 950 gradients, at times t1 (red solid) and t1+6 (red dashed) hours, respectively. AIRS radiances are assimilated at  
 951 145 km x 145 km density inside the moving domain, as indicated by the dense black dots, whereas a thinning  
 952 level of 300 km (about 1/4th density) is used for assimilation outside the domain (sparse black dots).

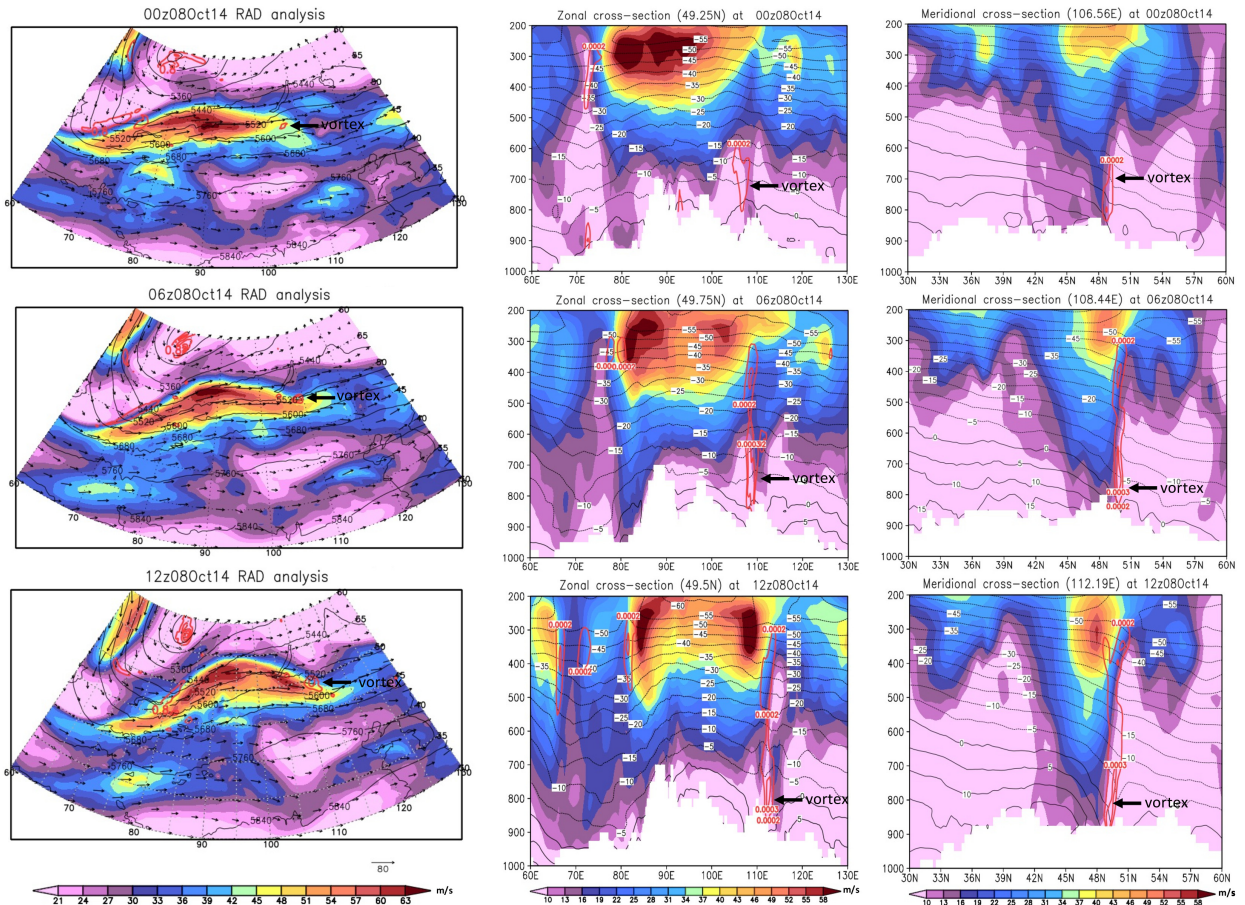


953 FIG. 2. Observations of spiral cloud over the Sea of Okhotsk from (a) MODIS true color image and (b)  
 954 AMSU-B/MHS 183.3 GHz brightness temperatures (K); (c) surface weather chart analysis on 10 October 2014.  
 955 “JMA Surface Weather Chart” (from the Japan Meteorological Agency website).

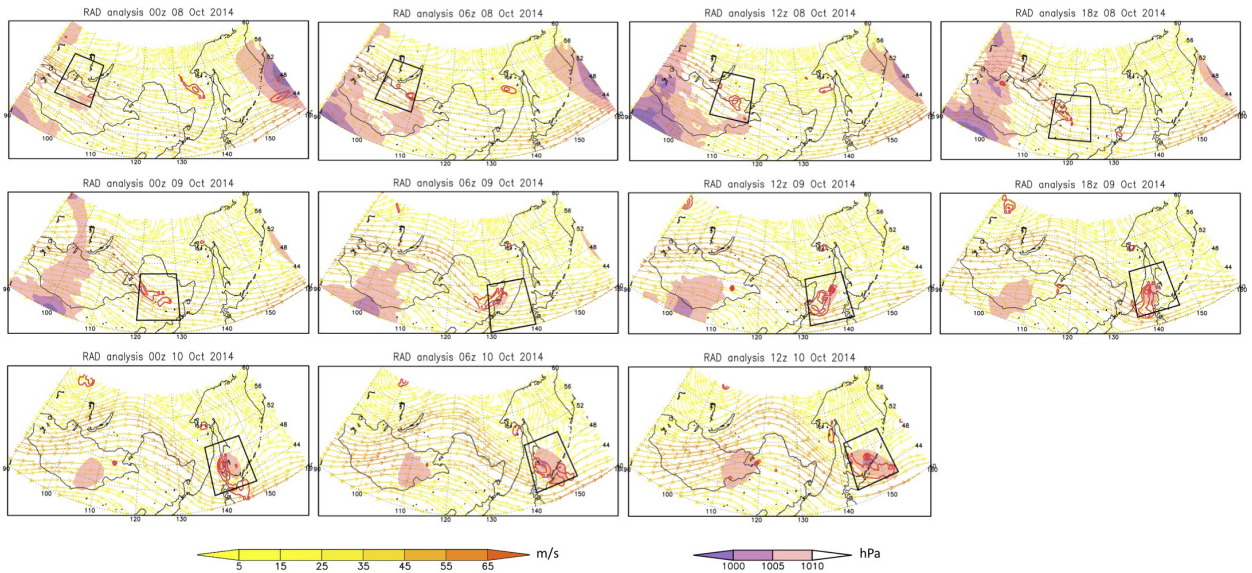
06z10Oct14 RAD analysis



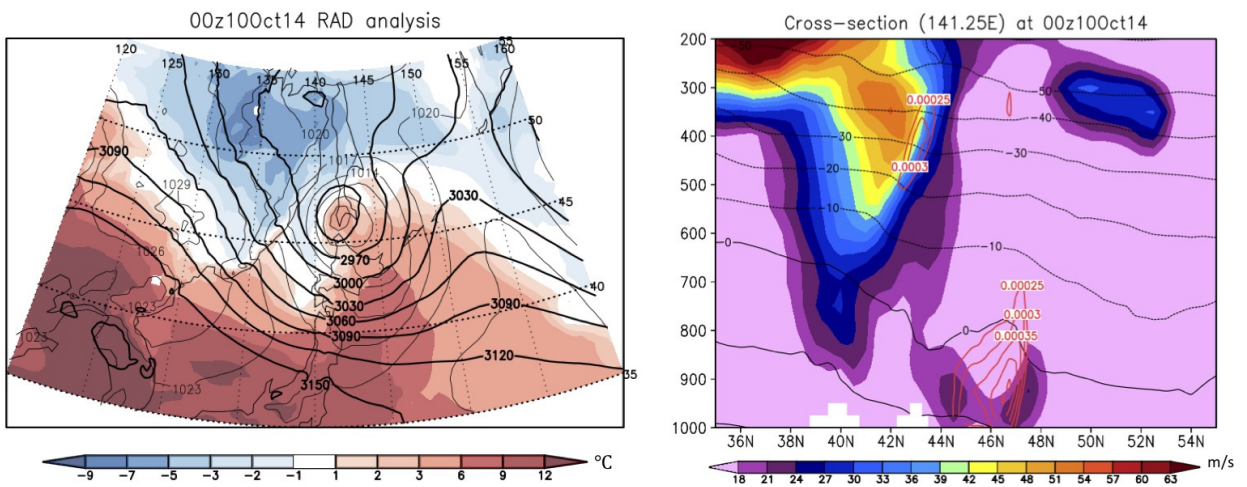
956 FIG. 3. The 850hPa temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; thin contour), and 500hPa geopotential  
957 height (meters; thick contour) observed at 06z 10 October 2014 in the RAD analysis.



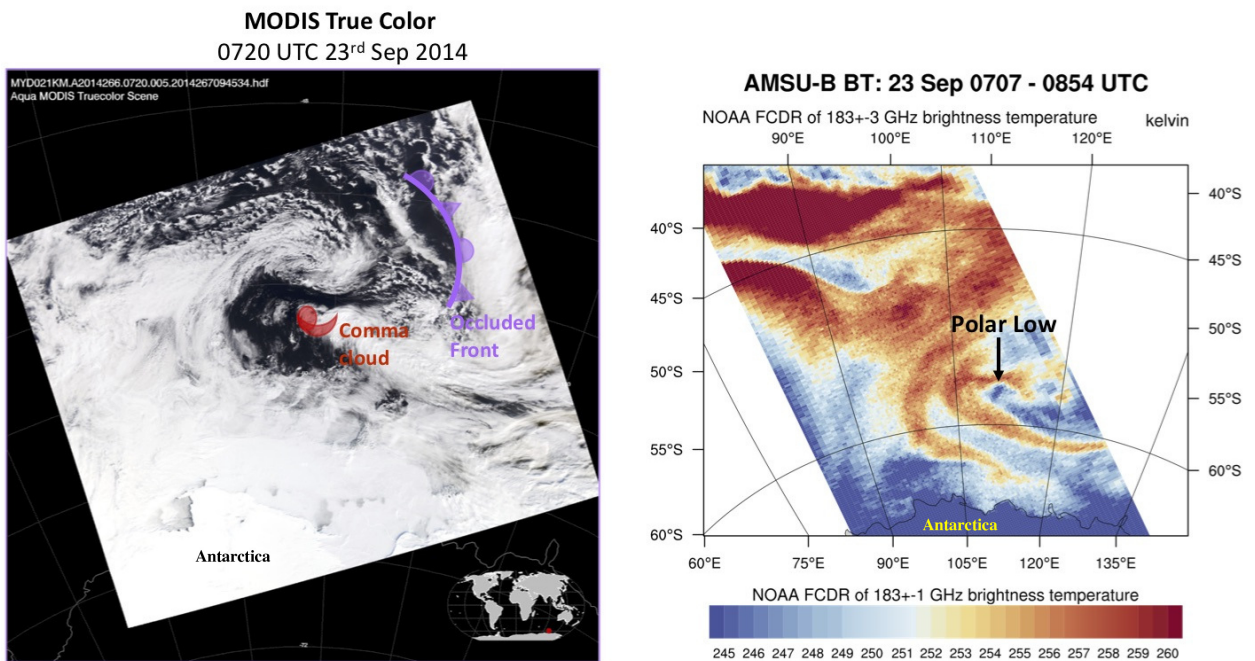
958 FIG. 4. (left) The 250hPa wind vector (arrows) and wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), 500hPa geopotential height  
 959 (meters; black contour), and the vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour)  
 960 showing the origin of the mesoscale vortex in RAD analysis; (center) longitude-height and (right) latitude-height  
 961 cross-section of the vortex showing wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity  
 962 ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour).



963 FIG. 5. The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), sea level pressure (hPa; shaded contours), and the  
 964 vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) in the 6-hourly RAD analysis  
 965 from 00z 08 October to 12z 10 October 2014. The PL domain used for adaptive thinning of AIRS CCRs is  
 966 shown in black.

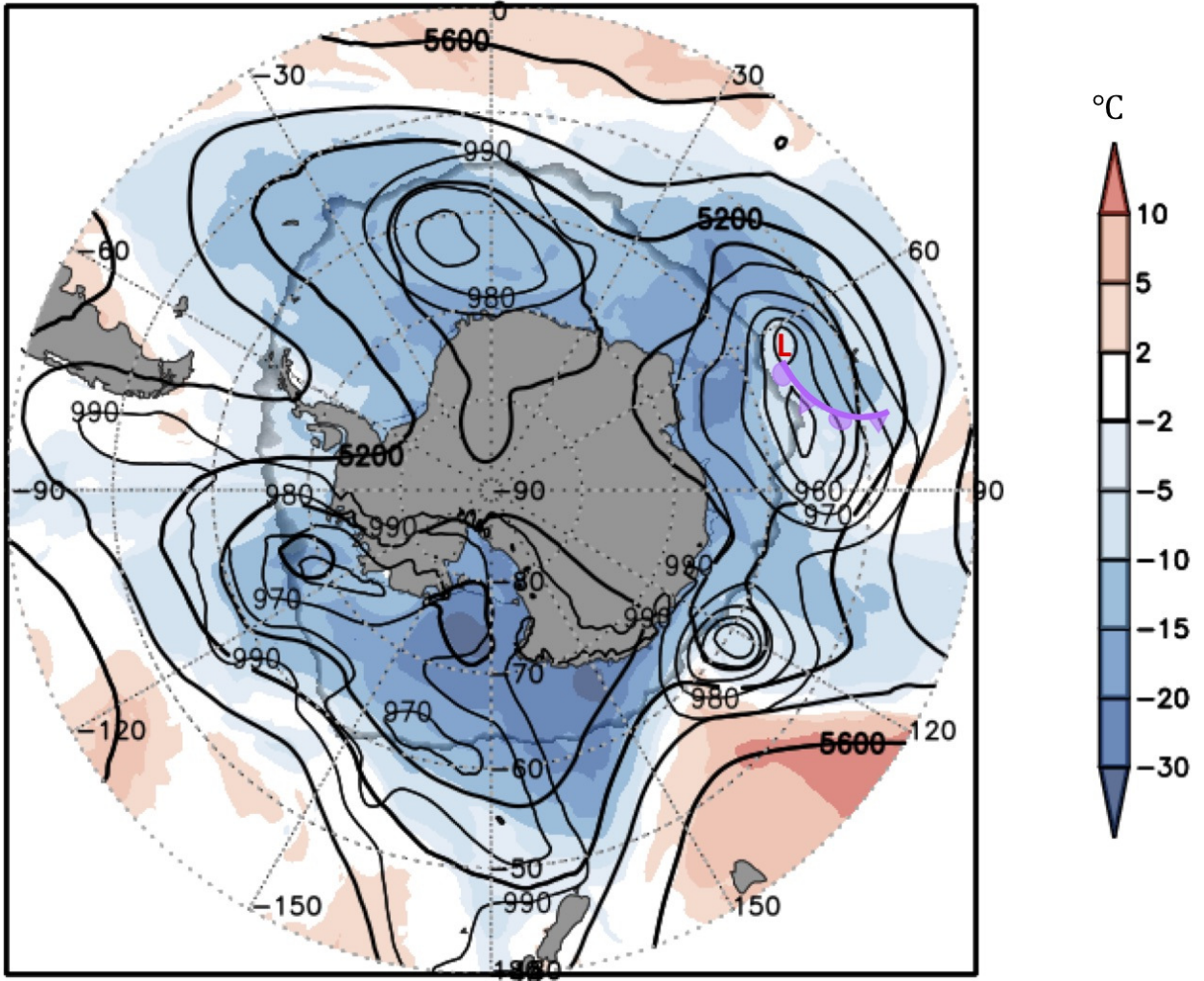


967 FIG. 6. (left) The 850hPa temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; thin black contour), and 700 hPa  
 968 geopotential height (meters; thick black contour) observed at 00z 10 October 2014 in the RAD analysis showing  
 969 an occluded mesoscale front, and (right) latitude-height cross-section of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature  
 970 ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) showing the incipient polar low.

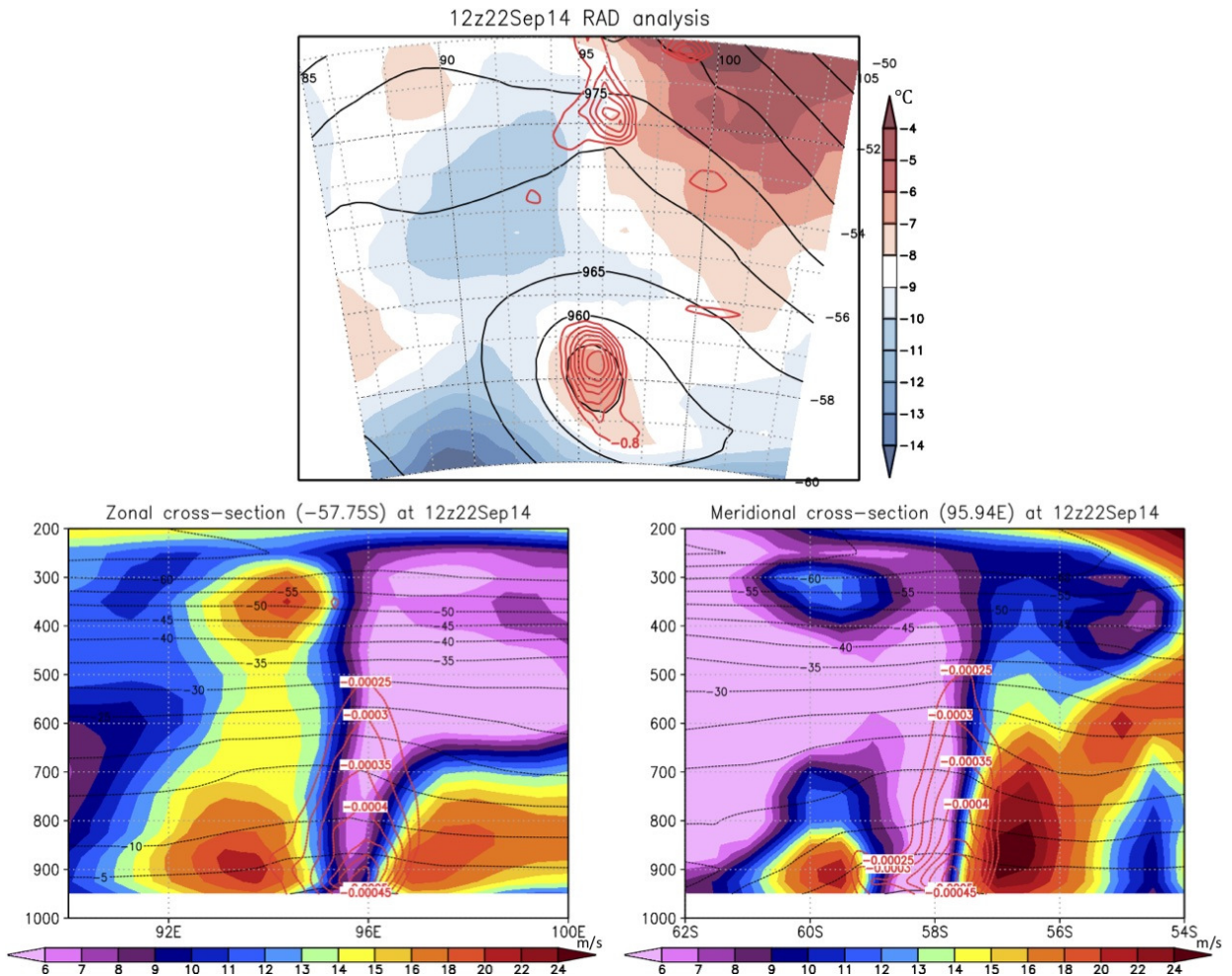


971 FIG. 7. Observations of comma cloud over the Southern Ocean from (left) MODIS true color image (also  
 972 showing the cloud field associated with an occluded front) and (right) AMSU-B/MHS 183.3 GHz brightness  
 973 temperatures (K) on 23 September 2014.

# 06z21Sep14 RAD analysis

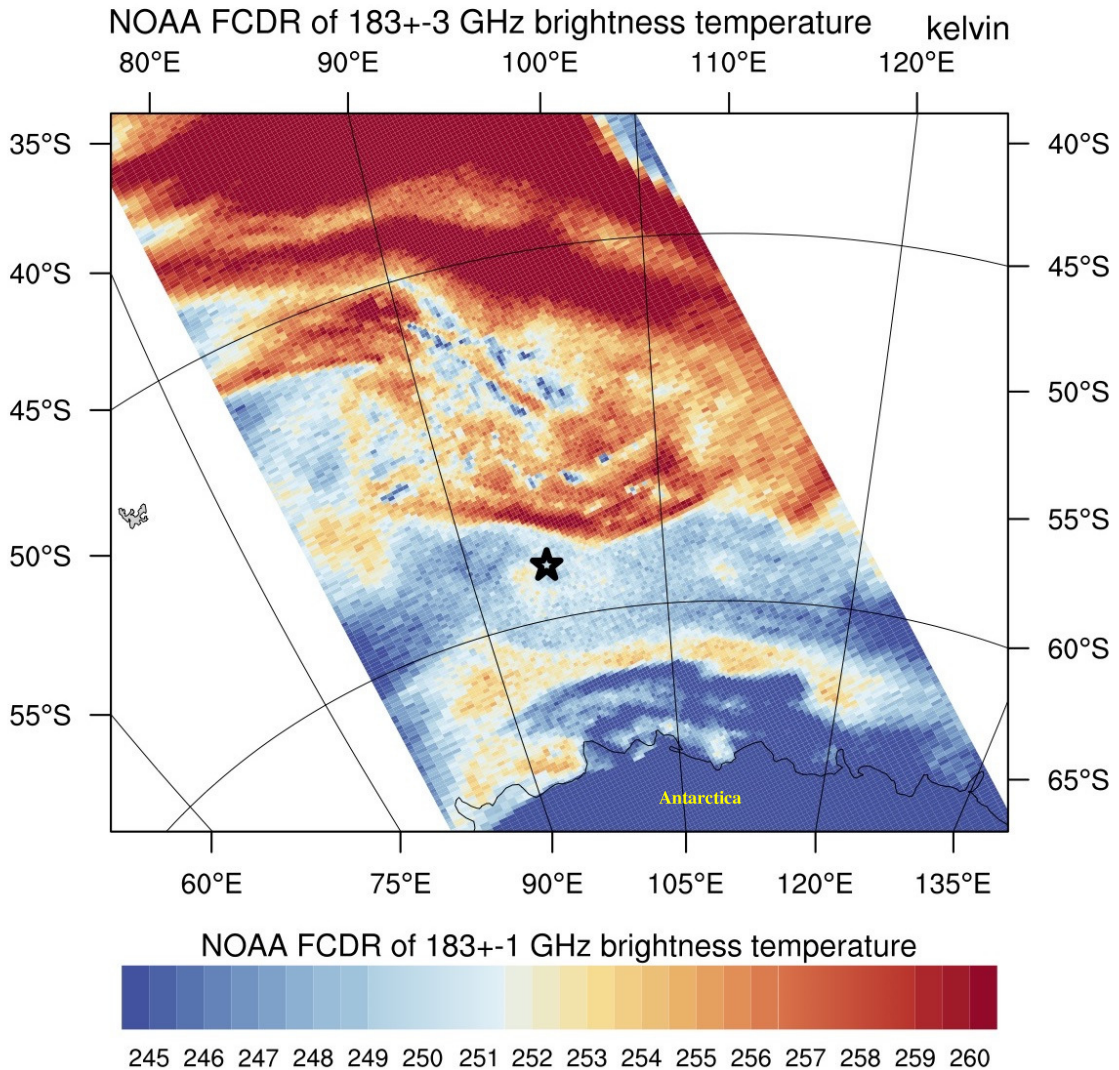


974 FIG. 8. The 850hPa temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; thin black contour), 500mb geopotential  
975 height (meters; thick black contour) at 06z 21 September 2014 in the RAD analysis. The sea ice margin (defined  
976 as sea ice fraction ranging between 0.5 to 0.15) is indicated by grey contours. The occluded front is indicated in  
977 purple, and the associated surface low is indicated by the letter "L" in red.

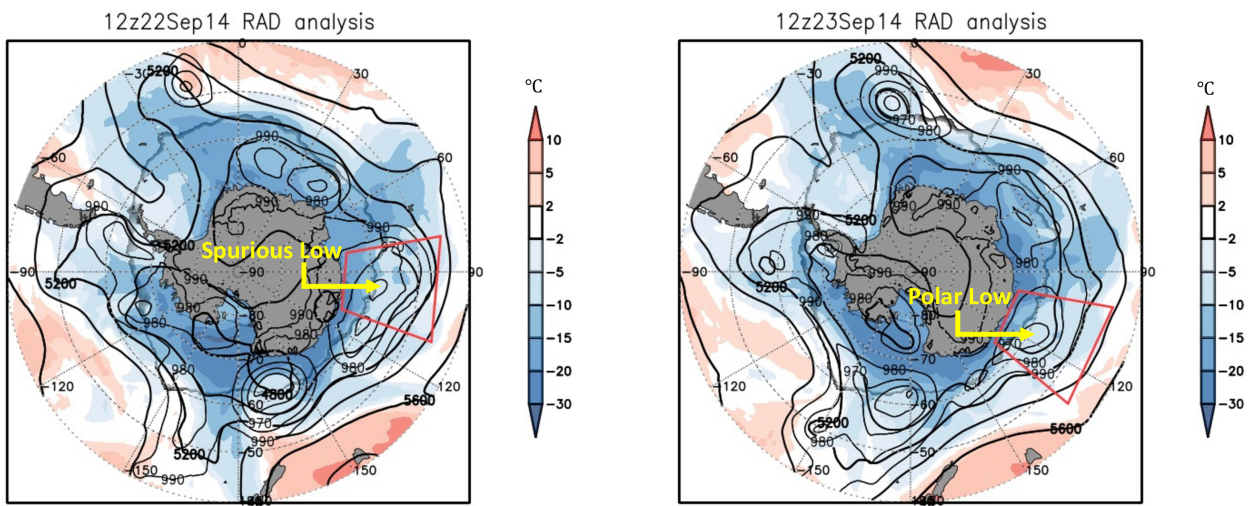


978 FIG. 9. (top) The 850hPa temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically  
 979 integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) observed at 12z 22 September 2014 during  
 980 the mature phase of the spurious low in the RAD analysis (not observed), and (bottom) vertical cross-sections of  
 981 the wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the core  
 982 of the spurious low.

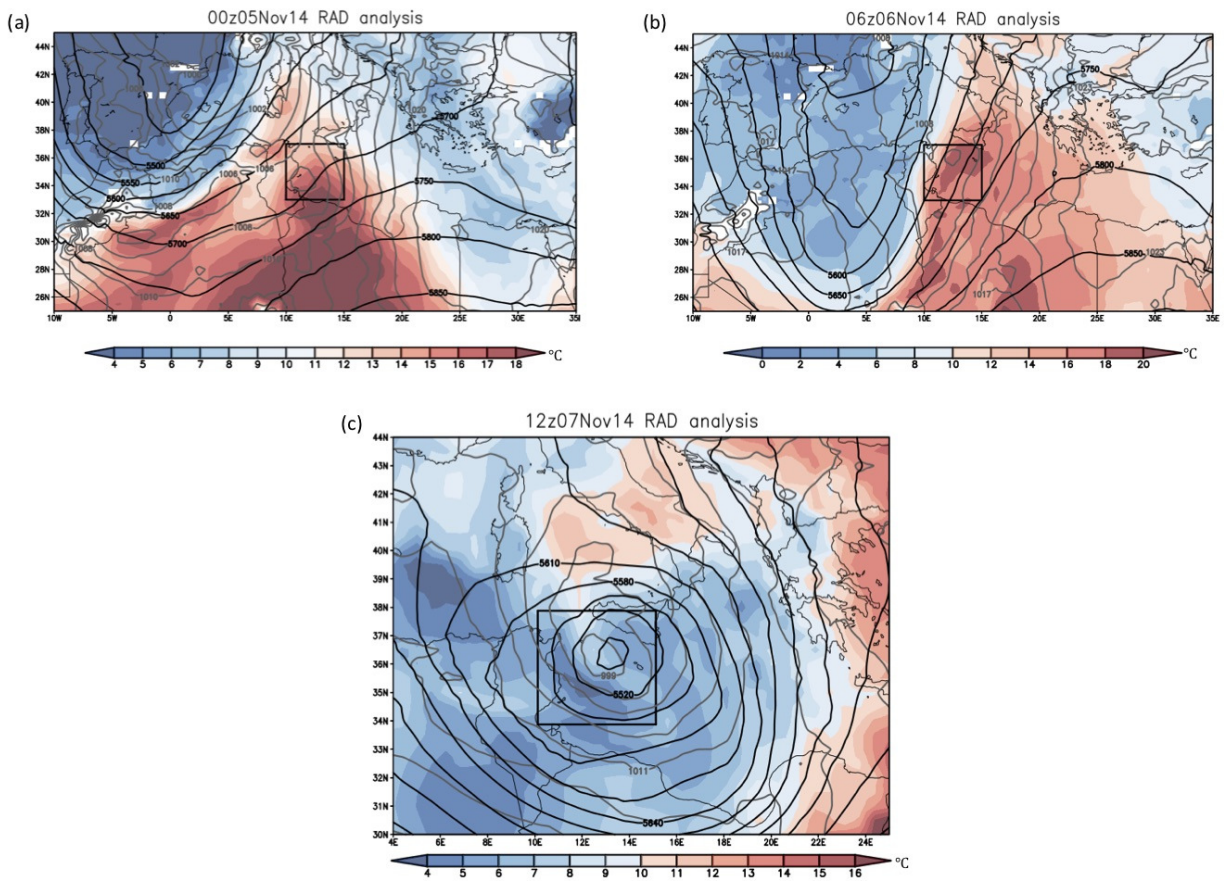
## AMSU-B BT: 22 Sep 0718 - 0906 UTC



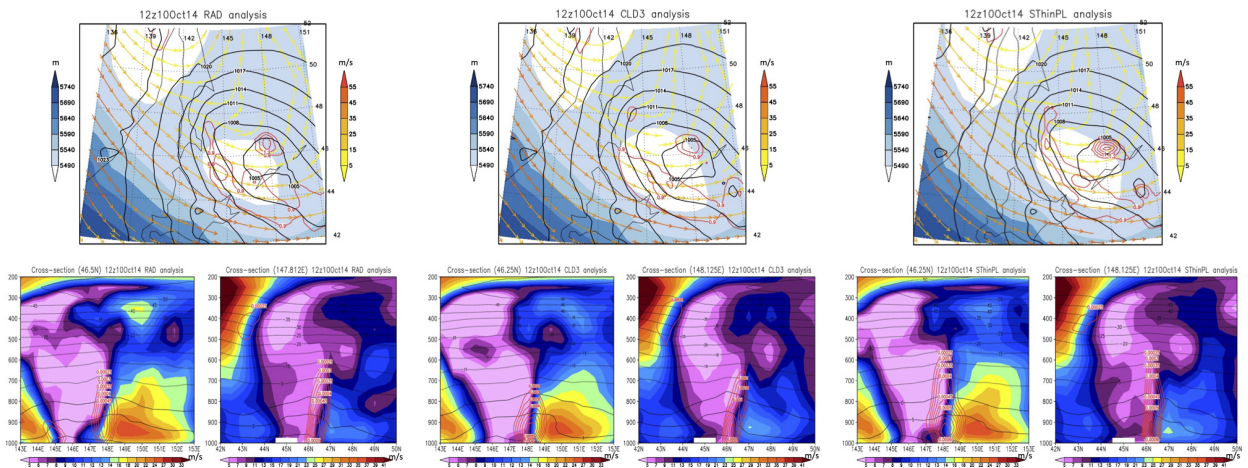
983 FIG. 10. The AMSU-B/MHS 183.3 GHz brightness temperatures (K) observations between 0718-0906 UTC  
984 22 September 2014, confirming the absence of convective clouds. The black star indicates the position of the  
985 spurious low (false positive) in the RAD analysis at this time.



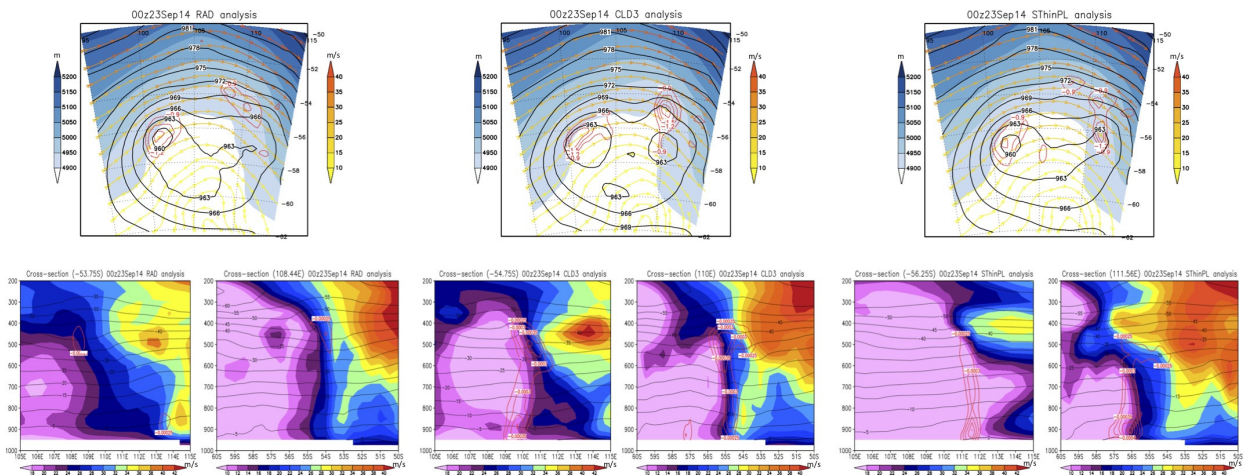
986 FIG. 11. As in Figure 8 but for (left) 12z 22 September and (right) 12z 23 September 2014. The position of  
 987 the spurious low (not observed) and Polar Low (observed) in RAD analysis is indicated, and the PL domain used  
 988 for adaptive thinning of AIRS CCRs is shown in red.



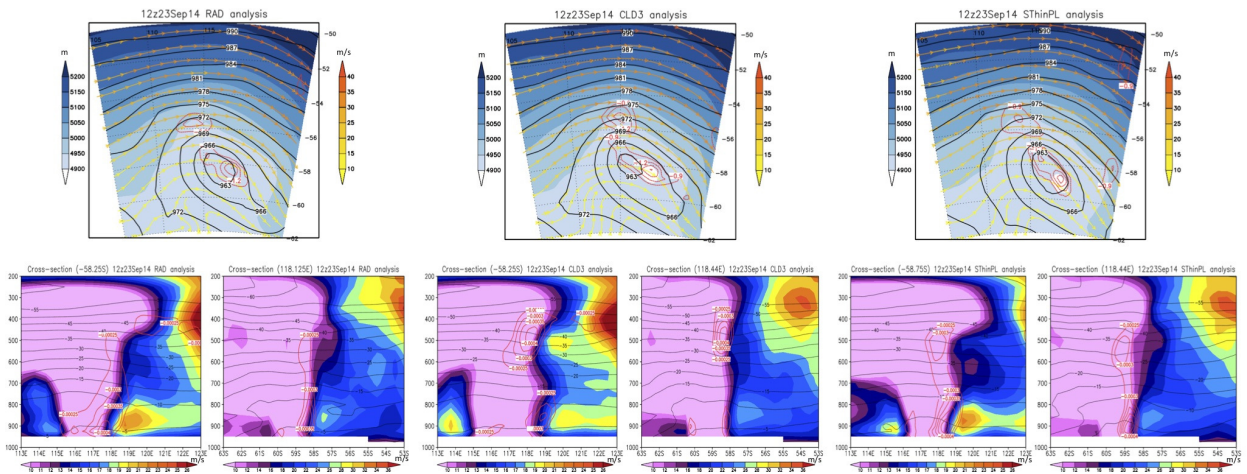
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 990 height (meters; black contour) observed at (a) 00z 05 November 2014 showing a mesoscale surface low along  
 991 the edge of a warm front, (b) 06z 06 November 2014 showing a mesoscale surface low along the edge of a cold  
 992 front, and (c) 12z 07 November 2014 showing an occluded front marking the genesis of T-LC Qendresa in the  
 993 RAD analysis. The black box shows the PL domain used for adaptive thinning of AIRS CCRs.



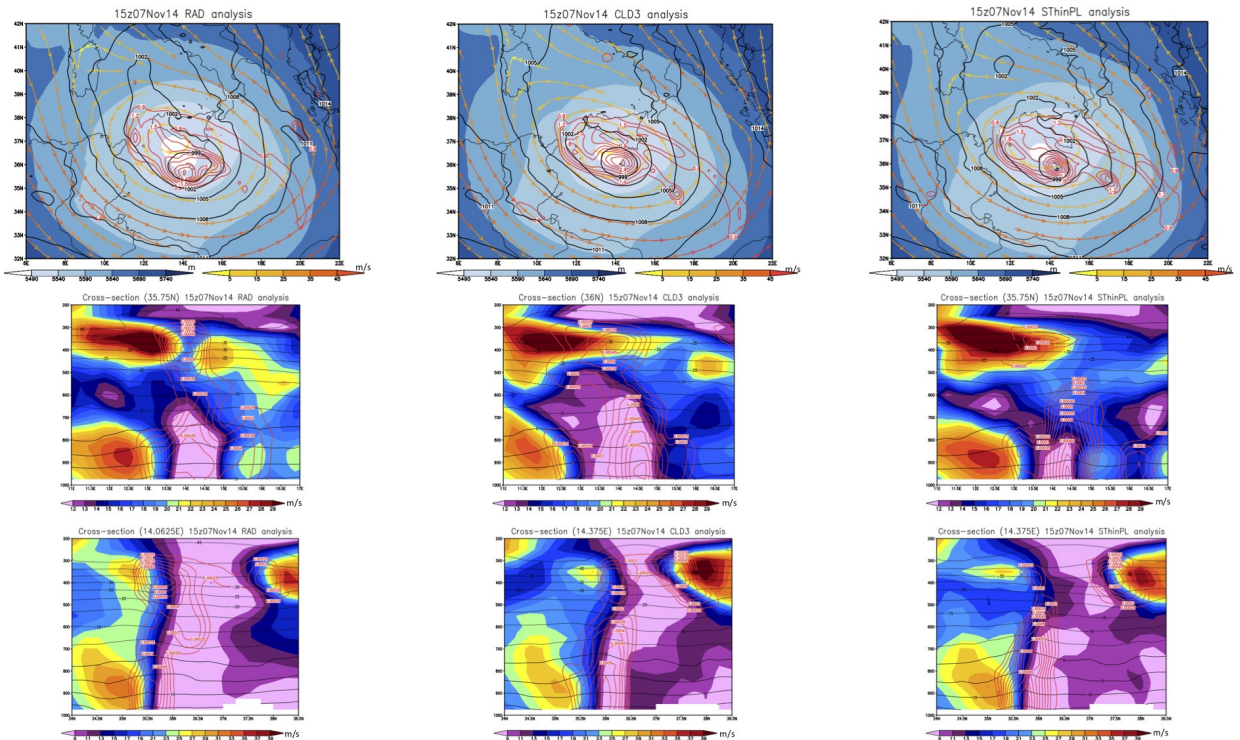
994 FIG. 13. (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters; blue  
 995 shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa  
 996 ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model analyses at 12z 10 October 2014 (time of peak intensity of the  
 997 Okhotsk Sea PL) and (bottom) zonal and meridional cross-sections of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature  
 998 ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the PL core.



999 FIG. 14. (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters; blue  
 1000 shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa  
 1001 ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model analyses during the genesis phase of the Southern Ocean PL, and  
 1002 (bottom) zonal and meridional cross-sections of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour),  
 1003 and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the vortex.



1004 FIG. 15. (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters; blue  
 1005 shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa  
 1006 ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model analyses at 12z 23 September 2014 (time of peak intensity of the  
 1007 Antarctic PL) , and (bottom) zonal and meridional cross-sections of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature  
 1008 ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) across the vortex



1009 FIG. 16. (top) The 250hPa streamlines ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; yellow shaded), 500hPa geopotential heights (meters; blue  
 1010 shaded), sea-level pressure (hPa; black contour), and vertically integrated vorticity from surface to 300hPa  
 1011 ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ; red contour) as observed in model experiments prior to landfall at Malta, and (bottom) zonal and  
 1012 meridional cross-sections of wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; shaded), temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; black contour), and vorticity ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ; red  
 1013 contour) across the T-LC core.